

Injury and Disease Linkages

Effects of traumatic brain injury and posttraumatic stress disorder on Alzheimer's disease in veterans, using the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative[☆]

Michael W. Weiner^{a,b,c,d,e,*}, Dallas P. Veitch^a, Jacqueline Hayes^a, Thomas Neylan^d, Jordan Grafman^f, Paul S. Aisen^g, Ronald C. Petersen^h, Clifford Jackⁱ, William Jagust^j, John Q. Trojanowski^{k,l,m,n}, Leslie M. Shaw^o, Andrew J. Saykin^{p,q}, Robert C. Green^r, Danielle Harvey^s, Arthur W. Toga^t, Karl E. Friedl^e, Anthony Pacifico^u, Yvette Sheline^v, Kristine Yaffe^{d,e}, Brian Mohlenhoff^d, the Department of Defense Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative

^aDepartment of Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Center for Imaging of Neurodegenerative Diseases, San Francisco, CA, USA

^bDepartment of Radiology, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA

^cDepartment of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA

^dDepartment of Psychiatry, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA

^eDepartment of Neurology, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA

^fDepartment of Psychiatry, Feinberg School of Medicine, Northwestern University, Chicago, IL, USA

^gDepartment of Neurosciences, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA

^hDepartment of Neurology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA

ⁱDepartment of Radiology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA

^jHelen Wills Neuroscience Institute, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA

^kInstitute on Aging, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

^lAlzheimer's Disease Core Center, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

^mUdall Parkinson's Research Center, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

ⁿDepartment of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Center for Neurodegenerative Research, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

^oDepartment of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

^pDepartment of Radiology and Imaging Sciences, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA

^qDepartment of Medical and Molecular Genetics, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA

^rDivision of Genetics, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

^sDivision of Biostatistics, Department of Public Health Sciences, University of California, Davis, CA, USA

^tLaboratory of Neuroimaging, Institute of Neuroimaging and Informatics, University of Southern California Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA

^uTelemedicine and Advanced Technology Research Center, U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command, Fort Detrick, MD, USA

^vDepartment of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, Washington University, St. Louis, MO, USA

[☆]This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>).

Publication of this article was supported by the United States Army Medical Research and Materiel Command.

M.W.W. has served on the Scientific Advisory Boards for Pfizer, BOLT International, Neurotrope Bioscience, Alzheon, U. of Sheffield, UK, and Eli Lilly. He has provided consulting to Synarc, Pfizer, Janssen, KLJ Associates, Easton Associates, Harvard University, University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation (ADDF), Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, Clearview Healthcare Partners, Perceptive Informatics, Smartfish AS, Decision Resources, Inc., Araclon, Merck, Defined Health, and Genentech. The following entities have provided funding for travel: Pfizer, Paul Sabatier University, MCI Group France, Travel eDreams, Inc., Neuroscience School of Advanced Studies (NSAS), Danone Trading,

BV, CTAD Ant Congres, Kenes, Intl., ADRC, UCLA, UCSD, Sanofi-Aventis Groupe, University Center Hospital, Toulouse, Araclon, AC Immune, Eli Lilly, New York Academy of Sciences (NYAS), and National Brain Research Center, India for Johns Hopkins Medicine. He served on the Editorial Boards for Alzheimer's & Dementia and MRI. He received honoraria from Pfizer, Tohoku University, and Danone Trading, BV. He received research support from Merck, Avid, the Veterans Administration (VA) and Department of Defense (DOD). K.E.F. received licensing royalties for a patent bundled with other patents pertaining to the neuropsychological test that the DoD uses (United States Patent 7,837,472 B1). The other authors have no conflict of interest to report.

*Corresponding author. Tel.: 415-221-4810 x3642; Fax: 415-668-2824.

E-mail address: michael.weiner@ucsf.edu

Abstract

Both traumatic brain injury (TBI) and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) are common problems resulting from military service, and both have been associated with increased risk of cognitive decline and dementia resulting from Alzheimer's disease (AD) or other causes. This study aims to use imaging techniques and biomarker analysis to determine whether traumatic brain injury (TBI) and/or PTSD resulting from combat or other traumas increase the risk for AD and decrease cognitive reserve in Veteran subjects, after accounting for age. Using military and Department of Veterans Affairs records, 65 Vietnam War veterans with a history of moderate or severe TBI with or without PTSD, 65 with ongoing PTSD without TBI, and 65 control subjects are being enrolled in this study at 19 sites. The study aims to select subject groups that are comparable in age, gender, ethnicity, and education. Subjects with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) or dementia are being excluded. However, a new study just beginning, and similar in size, will study subjects with TBI, subjects with PTSD, and control subjects with MCI. Baseline measurements of cognition, function, blood, and cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers; magnetic resonance images (structural, diffusion tensor, and resting state blood-level oxygen dependent (BOLD) functional magnetic resonance imaging); and amyloid positron emission tomographic (PET) images with florbetapir are being obtained. One-year follow-up measurements will be collected for most of the baseline procedures, with the exception of the lumbar puncture, the PET imaging, and apolipoprotein E genotyping. To date, 19 subjects with TBI only, 46 with PTSD only, and 15 with TBI and PTSD have been recruited and referred to 13 clinics to undergo the study protocol. It is expected that cohorts will be fully recruited by October 2014. This study is a first step toward the design and statistical powering of an AD prevention trial using at-risk veterans as subjects, and provides the basis for a larger, more comprehensive study of dementia risk factors in veterans. © 2014 Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of The Alzheimer's Association.

Keywords:

Traumatic brain injury; Posttraumatic stress disorder; Alzheimer's disease; Veterans; Neuroimaging

1. Introduction

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and traumatic brain injury (TBI) are well-documented risk factors for Alzheimer's disease (AD) [1–3]. AD is characterized by brain pathology consisting of extracellular plaques containing amyloid- β (A β), tangles of phosphorylated tau protein inside neurons, synapse loss, and neuronal loss, leading to dementia. Imaging studies using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and positron emission tomography (PET), and analysis of proteins in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) have revealed that AD is associated with low concentrations of CSF A β and elevated tau or, equivalently, the high uptake of an A β [4] imaging agent such as [¹¹C] Pittsburgh compound B, or the more recently developed [¹⁸F]-labeled amyloid PET ligands, such as florbetapir. Volumetric MRI has identified reduced volume of the entorhinal cortex, and hippocampus, and cortical thinning of the temporal and parietal cortices as being characteristic of AD [5].

TBI is defined as traumatically induced physiological disruption of brain function, as manifested by loss of consciousness, memory impairment, alteration of mental state, and/or focal neurological deficits. Diffuse injuries include hypoxia/ischemia, vascular damage, and diffuse macro-/microstructural axonal injury. Numerous epidemiologic studies have linked TBI to AD (reviewed in [6–12]). A history of TBI may be associated with earlier onset of AD [1,6,7,13–16] and the apolipoprotein E ϵ 4 (*APOE* ϵ 4) allele may worsen outcome [13,17–28]. A β plaques and intra-axonal A β deposits were found in approximately one-third of TBI subjects who died sometime after the TBI insult

[29–36]. A biopsy study of TBI survivors confirmed A β pathology [37,38], even in young subjects, suggesting that TBI is causal [31,35]. Repetitive mild TBI is associated with the development of chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE), a progressive tauopathy, and TAR DNA-binding protein 43 (TDP-43) proteinopathy that may also result in a late-life dementia [39]. CTE is distinguished from AD by the relative lack of A β -containing neuritic plaques and by atrophy of the medial temporal lobe, diencephalon, and mammillary bodies only in late stages of disease [39], but the link between the two conditions is not yet clear. One possibility is that TBI is associated with CTE, which manifest as a form of “reduced brain reserve.” Other possible long-term consequences of TBI are the development of aging-related Parkinson's disease, which co-occurs commonly with AD, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis [40], and other neurodegenerative disorders that involve coincidental cerebrovascular disease pathology [41]. A systematic review of the literature supported an association between a history of head injury in males and future development of AD (summary odds ratio, 2.29; range, 1.47–3.58) [1]. PTSD is an anxiety disorder that develops in some individuals after exposure to traumatic stress [42]. PTSD symptoms include flashbacks or nightmares and avoidance of stimuli; and increased anger, arousal, and hypervigilance [43–45]. Although these symptoms abate, they can persist for years or even decades [44]. The overall lifetime prevalence of PTSD in U.S. combat veterans is estimated at 6% to 31% [46,47]. The neuropathology underlying PTSD, separate from that associated with TBI, is completely unknown [40].

PTSD engenders an approximate doubling of the risk for AD and dementia in veterans [2]. However mechanisms of brain volume loss, cognitive impairment, and increased risk for dementia in PTSD are not known and may include reduced “cognitive reserve” suggested by impaired verbal memory in PTSD [48,49]; brain alterations in the hippocampus [50–54], anterior cingulate [52], and prefrontal structures (reviewed in [55]); or the association of PTSD with independent risk factors for dementia such as smoking, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, diabetes, obesity, inflammation, and major depression [56–58]. No study has examined whether PTSD is associated with increased deposition of AD-like tau or A β pathologies, Parkinson’s disease-like Lewy bodies formed by α synuclein amyloid fibrils, or TDP-43 inclusions that are signatures of frontotemporal lobar degeneration and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

2. Aims and scope of the study

This study aims to investigate the associations between a history of TBI and/or current PTSD and brain AD pathology using methodology, infrastructure, and data collection techniques currently in use in the Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). ADNI [59–61] is a large public–private partnership that aims primarily to validate imaging and biomarkers for AD clinical trials. Standardized longitudinal, clinical, and cognitive [62,63] MRI [64]; fluorodeoxyglucose–PET and Pittsburgh compound B–PET [65]; blood and CSF biomarkers [66]; and genetics measurements [67,68] have been made on more than 800 participants. In 2010, funded by the federal stimulus package, the ADNI study moved into the “ADNI GO” phase. The ADNI GO research effort is the first of its kind to focus on participants who exhibit the earliest signs of memory loss in mild cognitive impairment (MCI)—both thought to be precursors to AD. The ADNI2 phase of the study commenced in 2011 and is modeled after the original ADNI study. ADNI2 uses clinical/cognitive tests, lumbar puncture for the collection of CSF, 3-T MRI, florbetapir amyloid PET scans, and fluorodeoxyglucose PET scans [69–72], and has enrolled a large cohort of new healthy control volunteers and subjects with early MCI, late MCI, and AD; and a new group consisting of those with subjective memory complaints. Across these three phases, more than 1600 unique participants have been enrolled. Subjects are seen at 59 sites throughout the United States and Canada.

For this study, we are enrolling three additional groups from military and veterans’ records: (1) veterans with past history of TBI with or without PTSD, (2) veterans with ongoing PTSD without TBI, and (3) veteran control subjects comparable in age, gender, education, socioeconomic status to groups 1 and 2 who have no MCI or dementia. An attempt will also be made to match ethnicity. To maximize the statistical power to detect the effects of a history of TBI or ongoing PTSD on cognition, subjects with MCI will be excluded, because evidence of AD pathology has been reported in 50% to 60% of

these subjects [73–75], and this would increase the difficulty in detecting an effect of PTSD or TBI. Furthermore, several groups (Drs. C. Rowe and M. Mintun, pers. comm.) have found that the effects of the *APOE* ϵ 4 allele and age on amyloid PET positivity are more significant in cognitively normal subjects compared with patients with MCI or AD. Therefore, we will study subjects with normal cognition who are expected to have an age-associated prevalence of brain AD pathology of 10% to 30% [76–78].

3. Study hypotheses and exploratory analyses

Using the three groups, we are testing the primary hypothesis that veterans with a history of moderate to severe TBI and/or PTSD have increased evidence for AD pathophysiological markers (greater uptake on florbetapir amyloid PET scans, lower CSF A β levels, greater CSF tau and phosphorylated tau (p-tau) levels, greater baseline and longitudinal medial temporal brain atrophy, reduced baseline cognitive function, and a greater rate of change of cognitive function, particularly in delayed recall) compared with control subjects. Other major hypotheses are (1) that TBI and/or PTSD reduce cognitive reserve, causing greater cognitive impairment after accounting for age, educational status, prewar cognitive function, brain amyloid load, or hippocampal volume; and (2) that there are significant correlations between severity of TBI and/or the severity of PTSD, and greater cognitive impairment. We are also seeking to replicate reports that TBI is associated with reduced microstructural integrity in brain white matter in specific brain regions [79–81] and that PTSD is associated with reduced hippocampal volume compared with control subjects [50–54].

In addition, we are investigating whether TBI and PTSD alter the patterns of amyloid distribution or brain atrophy among TBI, PTSD, and control subjects, and whether these differ from patterns of nonveteran subjects in ADNI. We are also studying the relationship between cortical areas with amyloid deposition and underlying white matter integrity to determine whether axonal injury resulting from TBI is associated with greater amyloid accumulation or with less amyloid accumulation resulting from disconnection and reduced brain activity. We expect that these exploratory analyses will have low statistical significance after correction for multiple comparisons, and that they will require future replication.

4. Methods

This entire study has been approved by the Committee on Human Research at the University of California at San Francisco, the San Francisco VA Medical Center Research and Development Committee, and the Department of Defense Human Research Protection Office. All patients provide informed consent before being enrolled in the study.

4.1. Research participant selection and exclusion criteria

Vietnam veterans aged 60 to 80 years with documented history of TBI with or without PTSD, with ongoing PTSD

but without TBI, and veteran control subjects matching in age, gender, and education are being identified from Veterans Affairs records. Inclusion criteria for subjects with TBI are a documented history of moderate–severe nonpenetrating TBI that may be related to military service during the Vietnam War or to another trauma, and either no evidence or some evidence of PTSD (Clinician Administered PTSD Scale [CAPS] [82] score, >30 points). A minimum CAPS score of 40 points and no history of head trauma are required for inclusion in the PTSD group. Control subjects have no documented or self-history report of TBI, and no CAPS score greater than 29 points. Individuals are excluded from the study for potentially confounding factors, including a history of psychotic or neurologic illnesses, a recent history of alcohol or substance abuse, the presence of metal implants or claustrophobia that would prevent subjects undergoing MRI testing, and contraindications for lumbar puncture PET scan, or other procedures in this study.

4.2. Telephone screening and self-report assessments

Veteran volunteers within 150 miles of approved Department of Defense (DOD) ADNI sites are contacted initially by letter or by phone. Consenting volunteers undergo a telephone prescreen interview to document any history of TBI, including military-associated injury and all other traumas. Volunteers are questioned about their use of drugs and alcohol, medical history, current use of medications, and memory. The purpose of the prescreen interview is to rule out volunteers with exclusionary criteria, such as possible MCI or dementia (based on the Telephone Interview Cognitive Status assessment), inability to undergo MRI as a result of claustrophobia, or the presence of metal in the body, and other health issues that would make it unsafe for them to participate. Volunteers who pass the prescreen interview and who have given documented consent are then assessed using CAPS [82], which identifies PTSD and other exclusionary factors, such as psychotic illnesses (using the Structured Clinical Interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, fourth edition, nonpatient edition [83]; the Life Stressor Checklist, Revised; and the Addiction Severity Index Lite [84,85]). The following self-report measures are mailed to subjects and collected at the time of neurocognitive testing at the DOD ADNI sites: the Symptom Check-List-90-Revised [86], the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index [87], smoking status [88], number of pack years [89], the Short Form-12 Health Survey [90], and the Combat Exposure Scale [91].

After the Clinical telephone interview, eligible volunteers are referred to DOD ADNI sites for neurocognitive and clinical testing and imaging studies at baseline and at a 1-year follow-up.

4.3. Neurocognitive testing

At DOD ADNI sites, all participants are given the ADNI battery of neuropsychological tests designed to take fullest advantage of the *APOE* genotype, amyloid, and AD trajec-

tories of decline for study data interpretation, in addition to the Armed Forces Qualification Test, which is unique to the DOD ADNI study [92,93]. The battery consists of the Montreal Cognitive Assessment [94], everyday cognition [95], the Mini-Mental State Examination, the Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale–Cognitive 13 [96], the Logical Memory Test I and II (Delayed Paragraph Recall) [97], the Boston Naming Test [98], the Category Fluency Test [99], the Clock Drawing Test, the American National Adult Reading Test [100], the Auditory Verbal Learning Test [101], the Trail Making Test Parts A and B [102–104], the Clinical Dementia Rating [105], the Activities of Daily Living/Functional Assessment Questionnaire [106], the Neuropsychiatric Inventory [107], and the Geriatric Depression Scale [108]. Information is also obtained on education level, a proxy for socioeconomic status [109], and health and cognitive status, including the Armed Forces Qualification Test taken during basic training (if available) to determine whether cognitive status before combat is predictive of AD or PTSD.

4.4. Classification of subjects using CSF biomarkers

CSF is obtained at baseline using lumbar puncture and is analyzed with established ADNI methods [63]. Briefly, CSF samples will be assayed to measure levels of A β 42, total tau (t-tau) and tau phosphorylated at threonine 181 (p-tau₁₈₁) using the validated Luminex xMAP multiplex immunoassay platform [4,110–112]. The established pathological AD “signature” of biomarkers consisting of predefined cutoff values of t-tau, p-tau₁₈₁, and A β 42 levels that are predictive of AD [110,112] is being used in combination with the logistic regression of tau, A β , and *APOE* ϵ 4 alleles model [111] to delineate subjects with probable AD.

4.5. Imaging studies

4.5.1. Florbetapir amyloid imaging

Amyloid PET images are acquired using the radiotracer florbetapir ([¹⁸F]AV-45) [70–73], with a Hoffman phantom reference, at participating PET centers. Acquisition and analysis is identical to previously published methods used in ADNI [113].

4.5.2. Magnetic resonance imaging

Imaging is performed on qualified ADNI GE systems [113]. Briefly, the protocol consists of the following image sequences: (1) a three-dimensional, T1-weighted volumetric scan using the inversion recovery - spoiled gradient recalled echo sequence (GE product analog to MPRAGE) [113]; (2) fluid attenuated inversion recovery to detect quantitative measures of white matter hyperintensity burden, and for qualitative grading of lacunar infarctions and evidence of closed head injury; (3) T2* gradient echo to capture evidence of hemosiderin deposition, which could indicate remote cortical contusion, shearing injury, or prior subarachnoid hemorrhage; (4) diffusion tensor imaging, as previously

described in ADNI protocols [113], to detect traumatic shearing injury; and (5) resting-state task-free functional MRI consisting of 103 volumes at 3.3-mm³ resolution with a duration of 7 minutes to investigate the role of the functional network in dementia. Three-dimensional T1-weighted volumetric images are analyzed using FreeSurfer software (Athinoula A. Martinos Center for Biomedical Imaging, Boston, MA, USA) [114], and volume measurements of anatomic brain regions and geometric measures of cortical regions will be computed. Images will be analyzed using identical methods to ADNI.

4.6. Statistical analysis

Primary hypotheses will be tested statistically using uptake on florbetapir scans; CSF A β ; t-tau and p-tau₁₈₁; volumes of the hippocampus, entorhinal cortex, and parietal/temporal cortices; diffusion tensor imaging summary measures; and measures of cognitive function as primary outcomes. Baseline levels and change (difference scores between month 12 and baseline assessments) will be compared among groups using analysis of variance. When the global F-test for group difference is significant, post hoc pairwise tests, adjusting for multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni or Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference approach, will be used to identify specific group differences. Linear regression models will be used to account for potential confounders, including the presence of an *APOE* ϵ 4 allele. A priori power analyses for each class of primary hypotheses have been calculated using nQuery [115] assuming a two-sided test.

4.7. Informatics and data release

All data are deidentified and uploaded to the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study database at the University of California San Diego, and all magnetic resonance images and PET scans are uploaded to the Laboratory of Neuroimaging database [116] to be available, like ADNI data, to all qualified scientists, without embargo.

5. Current study progress

The names and contact information of Vietnam veterans who are service connected for PTSD and/or TBI were identified from Veterans Affairs compensation and pension records and Veterans Affairs health records. An additional group of Vietnam veterans service connected for traumas not related to PTSD, head trauma, or dementia were selected for the control group.

All subjects are contacted initially by mail, with a telephone follow-up to complete a prescreen interview to assess eligibility for study enrollment. The mail effort includes a letter, brochure, and response postcard. Subjects can call the toll-free study number or return the postcard and participate in the prescreen interview or opt out. Study staff call veterans who express interest and those who have not responded. No calls are made to those who have opted out. Table 1 summarizes the current prescreen effort. To date, 8113 letters have been mailed to selected Vietnam veterans. The overall response to this initial mail effort has been positive, as 12.4% of subjects expressed a desire to participate, whereas 4.5% declined. Telephone calls have been made to 4372 subjects. Of those called, 765 have declined (17.5%). The main reasons for declining are "not interested" and/or "too much involved" (lumbar puncture, PET, MRI). About a third (31.0%) completed the prescreen interview. The exclusion rate of those that completed this screen is 73.0%. The main reasons for excluding a subject involve circumstances that make it unsafe for the subject to undergo an MRI, a PET scan, or a lumbar puncture, such as metal or shrapnel in the body, unstable medical conditions, or current use of certain medications. Those subjects who complete the screening questions and are found to be eligible are mailed a consent form. Currently, 366 subjects (27.0%) have been sent a consent form and additional health and medical questionnaires. Again, the response to the study has been positive; only 24.6% of subjects who received the consent form declined to participate, whereas 214 (58.5%) signed

Table 1
Summary of each phase of the recruitment effort

Mail effort	Call effort	Completed screens	Consents sent	Signed consents received	SCID CAPS referrals	Clinic referrals by cohort
8113	4372	1356	60	214	3	TBI only, 19 (20%); both, 15 (15.8%)
Brochures mailed	Subjects called	Subjects screened	Waiting 14.9%	Signed and received	Scheduled	TBI/both, 35.8%
1005 12.4%	765 17.5%	990 73.0%	90 24.6%	55 25.7%	61 39.1%	46 48.4%
Respond yes	Subjects decline	Subjects excluded	Subjects declined	Subjects excluded	Subjects failed	PTSD only
367 4.5%	1356 31.0%	366 27.0%	214 58.5%	159 74.3%	95 60.9%	15 15.8%
Respond no	Subjects screened	Consents mailed	Signed and received	Referred SCID CAPS	Passed to clinic	Control subjects

Abbreviations: SCID, Structured clinical interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, fourth edition; CAPS, Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale; TBI, traumatic brain injury; PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

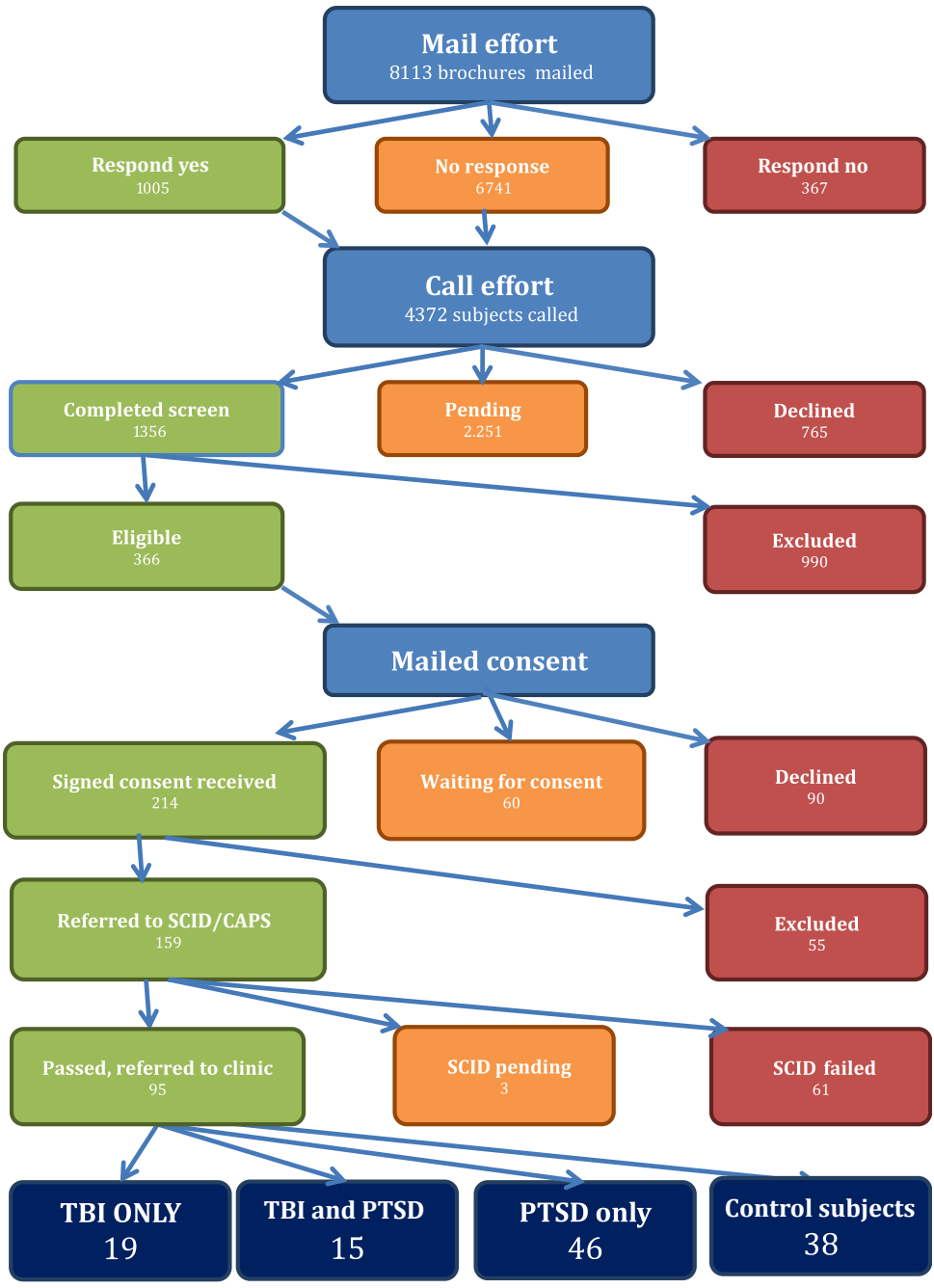


Fig. 1. Summary of each phase of the recruitment effort. SCID, Structured Clinical Interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, fourth edition; CAPS, Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale; TBI, traumatic brain injury; PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

and returned the required forms. When received in the study office, the additional health forms are reviewed by staff to ensure subject safety. An additional 25.7% have been excluded at this stage as a result of the disclosure of other health issues not reported in the prescreen. Subjects who have given written consent to the study and who are assessed as safe to continue are next referred for a structured clinical interview (Structured clinical interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, fourth edition CAPS); to date, 159 subjects (74.3%) of those who returned

their signed forms have been referred to the clinical interview, which assesses the presence of PTSD, other psychological disorders, and drug and alcohol abuse. Currently, 39.1% of subjects were excluded after the clinical interview because they did not have current PTSD (for the PTSD cohort) or they disclosed an exclusionary criterion (e.g. drug and/or alcohol abuse, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder). Subjects who match one of the study cohorts and do not meet any exclusionary criteria are referred to the clinic for additional screening procedures (medical history, cognitive

testing, and a screening MRI); currently, 95 subjects (60.9%) referred to the clinical interview have also been referred to one of the study clinics: 46 (48.4%) of the total clinic referrals are in the PTSD-only cohort, 19 subjects (20.0%) are in the TBI-only cohort, 15 (15.8%) are in the combined cohort (TBI and some PTSD), and 15 (15.8%) are control subjects. Subjects who meet all inclusion criteria after completing the screening procedures at the clinic are formally enrolled in the study. As of November 4, 2013, 19 of 95 subjects referred to the clinics have completed the screening battery and have been enrolled. The screening and enrollment process and progress to date are summarized in [Table 1](#) and [Fig. 1](#).

6. Limitations of the study

One potential limitation of this study design is that TBI and PTSD may be associated with a much greater incidence of MCI and dementia, and by excluding such subjects from our study we may be biasing the sample. This limitation is now offset by the funding of an additional study of similar magnitude that is focusing on subjects with MCI. Another limitation is that it will not be possible to distinguish cognitive impairment and MCI resulting from AD pathology from cognitive impairment and MCI resulting from TBI or other factors by telephone interview.

7. Conclusions

In conclusion, this study is designed to provide sufficient power to detect the main effects of TBI and PTSD on AD pathology measured with imaging and biomarkers. The results of these studies may provide insight into the question of whether TBI and PTSD alter the pattern of cognitive impairments, amyloid distribution, or brain atrophy. The results of this study may provide insight into the question of whether or not TBI and PTSD alter the pattern of cognitive impairments, amyloid distribution or brain atrophy and may eventually lead to an AD prevention trial in veterans with risk factors for the development of AD.

Acknowledgments

ADNI is funded by the National Institute on Aging and National Institute of Biomedical Imaging and Bioengineering, and through generous contributions from the following: Alzheimer's Association; Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation; Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, Inc; BioClinica, Inc.; Biogen Idec Inc.; Bristol-Myers Squibb Company; Eisai Inc.; Elan Pharmaceuticals, Inc.; Eli Lilly and Company; F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd and its affiliated company Genentech, Inc.; GE Healthcare; Innogenetics, N.V.; IXICO Ltd.; Janssen Alzheimer Immunotherapy Research & Development, LLC; Johnson & Johnson Pharmaceutical Research & Development LLC; Medpace, Inc.; Merck & Co., Inc.; Meso Scale Diagnostics, LLC.; NeuroRx Research; Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation; Pfizer Inc.; Piramal Imaging;

Servier; Synarc Inc.; and Takeda Pharmaceutical Company. The Canadian Institutes of Health Research is providing funds to support ADNI clinical sites in Canada. Private-sector contributions are facilitated by the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health (www.fnih.org). The grantee organization for ADNI is the Northern California Institute for Research and Education, and the study is coordinated by the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study at the University of California, San Diego. ADNI DOD data are disseminated by the Laboratory for Neuro Imaging at the University of California, Los Angeles. We thank all the veterans for their generous participation in this ADNI DOD study. This research was also supported by DOD award number W81XWH-12-2-0012.

References

- [1] Fleminger S, Oliver DL, Lovestone S, Rabe-Hesketh S, Giora A. Head injury as a risk factor for Alzheimer's disease: the evidence 10 years on; a partial replication. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2003;74(7):857–62.
- [2] Yaffe K, Vittinghoff E, Lindquist K, Barnes D, Covinsky KE, Neylan T, et al. Posttraumatic stress disorder and risk of dementia among US veterans. *Archives of general psychiatry* 2010; 67(6):608–13.
- [3] Qureshi SU, Kimbrell T, Pyne JM, Magruder KM, Hudson TJ, Petersen NJ, et al. Greater prevalence and incidence of dementia in older veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2010;58(9):1627–33.
- [4] Shaw LM, Vanderstichele H, Knapiak-Czajka M, Figurski M, Coart E, Blennow K, et al. Qualification of the analytical and clinical performance of CSF biomarker analyses in ADNI. *Acta Neuropathol* 2011; 121(5):597–609.
- [5] Weiner MW, Veitch DP, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Cairns NJ, Green RC, et al. The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative: a review of papers published since its inception. *Alzheimers Dement* 2012;8(1 Suppl):S1–68.
- [6] Johnson VE, Stewart W, Smith DH. Traumatic brain injury and amyloid-beta pathology: a link to Alzheimer's disease? *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2010;11(5):361–70.
- [7] Williams JW, Plassman BL, Burke J, Benjamin S. Preventing Alzheimer's disease and cognitive decline. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)* 2010;(193)::1–727.
- [8] Bilbul M, Schipper HM. Risk profiles of Alzheimer disease. *Can J Neurol Sci* 2011;38(4):580–92.
- [9] Jellinger KA. Head injury and dementia. *Curr Opin Neurol* 2004; 17(6):719–23.
- [10] Lye TC, Shores EA. Traumatic brain injury as a risk factor for Alzheimer's disease: a review. *Neuropsychol Rev* 2000;10(2):115–29.
- [11] Van Den Heuvel C, Thornton E, Vink R. Traumatic brain injury and Alzheimer's disease: a review. *Progress in brain research* 2007;161:303–16.
- [12] Szczygielski J, Mautes A, Stuedel WI, Falkai P, Bayer TA, Wirths O. Traumatic brain injury: cause or risk of Alzheimer's disease? A review of experimental studies. *Journal of neural transmission* 2005; 112(11):1547–64.
- [13] O'Meara ES, Kukull WA, Sheppard L, Bowen JD, McCormick WC, Teri L, et al. Head injury and risk of Alzheimer's disease by apolipoprotein E genotype. *Am J Epidemiol* 1997;146(5):373–84.
- [14] van Duijn CM, Tanja TA, Haaxma R, Schulte W, Saan RJ, Lameris AJ, et al. Head trauma and the risk of Alzheimer's disease. *AmJEpidemiol* 1992;135(7):775–82.
- [15] Nemetz PN, Leibson C, Naessens JM, Beard M, Kokmen E, Annegers JF, et al. Traumatic brain injury and time to onset of

- Alzheimer's disease: a population-based study. *AmJ Epidemiol* 1999; 149(1):32–40.
- [16] Mehta KM, Ott A, Kalmijn S, Slooter AJ, van Duijn CM, Hofman A, et al. Head trauma and risk of dementia and Alzheimer's disease: The Rotterdam Study. *Neurology* 1999;53(9):1959–62.
- [17] Mayeux R, Ottman R, Tang MX, Noboa-Bauza L, Marder K, Gurland B, et al. Genetic susceptibility and head injury as risk factors for Alzheimer's disease among community-dwelling elderly persons and their first-degree relatives. *Ann Neurol* 1993;33(5):494–501.
- [18] Mayeux R, Ottman R, Maestre G, Ngai C, Tang MX, Ginsberg H, et al. Synergistic effects of traumatic head injury and apolipoprotein-epsilon 4 in patients with Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* 1995;45(3 Pt 1):555–7.
- [19] Katzman R, Galasko DR, Saitoh T, Chen X, Pay MM, Booth A, et al. Apolipoprotein-epsilon4 and head trauma: Synergistic or additive risks? *Neurology* 1996;46(3):889–91.
- [20] Jordan BD, Relkin NR, Ravdin LD, Jacobs AR, Bennett A, Gandy S. Apolipoprotein E epsilon4 associated with chronic traumatic brain injury in boxing. *Jama* 1997;278(2):136–40.
- [21] Friedman G, Froom P, Sazbon L, Grinblatt I, Shochina M, Tsender J, et al. Apolipoprotein E-epsilon4 genotype predicts a poor outcome in survivors of traumatic brain injury. *Neurology* 1999;52(2):244–8.
- [22] Lichtman SW, Seliger G, Tycko B, Marder K. Apolipoprotein E and functional recovery from brain injury following postacute rehabilitation. *Neurology* 2000;55(10):1536–9.
- [23] Jellinger KA, Paulus W, Wrocklage C, Litvan I. Effects of closed traumatic brain injury and genetic factors on the development of Alzheimer's disease. *Eur J Neurol* 2001;8(6):707–10.
- [24] Diaz-Arrastia R, Gong Y, Fair S, Scott KD, Garcia MC, Carlile MC, et al. Increased risk of late posttraumatic seizures associated with inheritance of APOE epsilon4 allele. *Arch Neurol* 2003; 60(6):818–22.
- [25] Nathoo N, Chetty R, van Dellen JR, Barnett GH. Genetic vulnerability following traumatic brain injury: the role of apolipoprotein E. *Mol Pathol* 2003;56(3):132–6.
- [26] Ariza M, Pueyo R, Matarin Mdel M, Junque C, Mataro M, Clemente I, et al. Influence of APOE polymorphism on cognitive and behavioural outcome in moderate and severe traumatic brain injury. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2006;77(10):1191–3.
- [27] Houlden H, Greenwood R. Apolipoprotein E4 and traumatic brain injury. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2006;77(10):1106–7.
- [28] Nicoll JA, Roberts GW, Graham DI. Apolipoprotein E epsilon 4 allele is associated with deposition of amyloid beta-protein following head injury. *Nat Med* 1995;1(2):135–7.
- [29] Roberts GW, Gentleman SM, Lynch A, Graham DI. beta A4 amyloid protein deposition in brain after head trauma. *Lancet* 1991; 338(8780):1422–3.
- [30] Gentleman SM, Nash MJ, Sweeting CJ, Graham DI, Roberts GW. Beta-amyloid precursor protein (beta APP) as a marker for axonal injury after head injury. *Neurosci Lett* 1993;160(2):139–44.
- [31] Roberts GW, Gentleman SM, Lynch A, Murray L, Landon M, Graham DI. Beta amyloid protein deposition in the brain after severe head injury: implications for the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1994;57(4):419–25.
- [32] Gentleman SM, Greenberg BD, Savage MJ, Noori M, Newman SJ, Roberts GW, et al. A beta 42 is the predominant form of amyloid beta-protein in the brains of short-term survivors of head injury. *Neuroreport* 1997;8(6):1519–22.
- [33] Horsburgh K, Cole GM, Yang F, Savage MJ, Greenberg BD, Gentleman SM, et al. beta-amyloid (Abeta)42(43), abeta42, abeta40 and apoE immunostaining of plaques in fatal head injury. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* 2000;26(2):124–32.
- [34] Smith DH, Chen XH, Iwata A, Graham DI. Amyloid beta accumulation in axons after traumatic brain injury in humans. *J Neurosurg* 2003;98(5):1072–7.
- [35] Uryu K, Chen XH, Martinez D, Browne KD, Johnson VE, Graham DI, et al. Multiple proteins implicated in neurodegenerative diseases accumulate in axons after brain trauma in humans. *Exp Neurol* 2007;208(2):185–92.
- [36] Chen XH, Johnson VE, Uryu K, Trojanowski JQ, Smith DH. A lack of amyloid beta plaques despite persistent accumulation of amyloid beta in axons of long-term survivors of traumatic brain injury. *Brain Pathol* 2009;19(2):214–23.
- [37] Ikonovic MD, Uryu K, Abrahamson EE, Ciallella JR, Trojanowski JQ, Lee VM, et al. Alzheimer's pathology in human temporal cortex surgically excised after severe brain injury. *Exp Neurol* 2004;190(1):192–203.
- [38] DeKosky ST, Abrahamson EE, Ciallella JR, Paljug WR, Wisniewski SR, Clark RS, et al. Association of increased cortical soluble abeta42 levels with diffuse plaques after severe brain injury in humans. *Arch Neurol* 2007;64(4):541–4.
- [39] McKee AC, Cantu RC, Nowinski CJ, Hedley-Whyte ET, Gavett BE, Budson AE, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy in athletes: progressive tauopathy after repetitive head injury. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2009;68(7):709–35.
- [40] Shively S, Scher AI, Perl DP, Diaz-Arrastia R. Dementia Resulting From Traumatic Brain Injury: What Is the Pathology? *Arch Neurol* 2012;;1–7.
- [41] Toledo JB, Arnold SE, Raible K, Brettschneider J, Xie SX, Grossman M, et al. Contribution of cerebrovascular disease in autopsy confirmed neurodegenerative disease cases in the National Alzheimer's Coordinating Centre. *Brain* 2013;136(Pt 9):2697–706.
- [42] Yehuda R, Ledoux J. Response Variation following Trauma: A Translational Neuroscience Approach to Understanding PTSD. *Neuron* 2007;56(1):19–32.
- [43] McFall ME, Mackay PW, Donovan DM. Combat-related PTSD and psychosocial adjustment problems among substance abusing veterans. *The Journal of nervous and mental disease* 1991;179(1):33–8.
- [44] Kulka RA, Schlenger WE, Fairbank JA, Hough RL, Jordan BK, Marmar CR, et al. Trauma and the vietnam war generation. New York: Brunner/Mazel; 1990. . 1990.
- [45] Kessler RC, Sonnega A, Bromet E, Hughes M, Nelson CB. Posttraumatic stress disorder in the National Comorbidity Survey. *Archives of general psychiatry* 1995;52(12):1048–60.
- [46] Smith TC, Jacobson IG, Hooper TI, Leardmann CA, Boyko EJ, Smith B, et al. Health impact of US military service in a large population-based military cohort: findings of the Millennium Cohort Study, 2001–2008. *BMC Public Health* 2011;11:69.
- [47] Richardson LK, Frueh BC, Acierno R. Prevalence estimates of combat-related post-traumatic stress disorder: critical review. *The Australian and New Zealand journal of psychiatry* 2010; 44(1):4–19.
- [48] Samuelson KW, Neylan TC, Metzler TJ, Lenoci M, Rothlind J, Henn-Haase C, et al. Neuropsychological functioning in posttraumatic stress disorder and alcohol abuse. *Neuropsychology* 2006; 20(6):716–26.
- [49] Samuelson KW, Neylan TC, Lenoci M, Metzler TJ, Cardenas V, Weiner MW, et al. Longitudinal effects of PTSD on memory functioning. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc* 2009;15(6):853–61.
- [50] Schuff N, Marmar CR, Weiss DS, Neylan TC, Schoenfeld F, Fein G, et al. Reduced hippocampal volume and n-acetylaspartate in post traumatic stress disorder. *The Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. 1997;Supplement on Psychobiology of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder(821):516–20.
- [51] Schuff N, Neylan TC, Lenoci MA, Du AT, Weiss DS, Marmar CR, et al. Decreased hippocampal N-acetylaspartate in the absence of atrophy in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 2001;50(12):952–9.
- [52] Schuff N, Neylan TC, Fox-Bosetti S, Lenoci M, Samuelson KW, Studholme C, et al. Abnormal N-acetylaspartate in hippocampus and anterior cingulate in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Psychiatry Res* 2008;162(2):147–57.
- [53] Wang Z, Neylan TC, Mueller SG, Lenoci M, Truran D, Marmar CR, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging of hippocampal

- subfields in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2010;67(3):296–303.
- [54] Apfel BA, Ross J, Hlavin J, Meyerhoff DJ, Metzler TJ, Marmar CR, et al. Hippocampal volume differences in Gulf War veterans with current versus lifetime posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms. *Biol Psychiatry* 2011;69(6):541–8.
- [55] Woodward SH, Schaer M, Kaloupek DG, Cediell L, Eliez S. Smaller global and regional cortical volume in combat-related posttraumatic stress disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2009;66(12):1373–82.
- [56] Ahmadi N, Hajsadeghi F, Mirshkarlo HB, Budoff M, Yehuda R, Ebrahimi R. Post-traumatic Stress Disorder, Coronary Atherosclerosis, and Mortality. *Am J Cardiol* 2011;108(1):29–33.
- [57] O'Donnell ML, Creamer M, Pattison P. Posttraumatic stress disorder and depression following trauma: understanding comorbidity. *The American journal of psychiatry* 2004;161(8):1390–6.
- [58] Shalev AY, Freedman S, Peri T, Brandes D, Sahar T, Orr SP, et al. Prospective study of posttraumatic stress disorder and depression following trauma. *The American journal of psychiatry* 1998;155(5):630–7.
- [59] Mueller SG, Weiner MW, Thal LJ, Petersen RC, Jack C, Jagust W, et al. The Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative. *Neuroimaging Clin N Am* 2005;15(4):869–77. xi-xii.
- [60] Weiner MW, Aisen PS, Jack CR Jr, Jagust WJ, Trojanowski JQ, Shaw L, et al. The Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative: progress report and future plans. *Alzheimers Dement* 2010;6(3):202–2117.
- [61] Salloway S. New lessons from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative. *Arch Neurol* 2011;68(1):19–21.
- [62] Petersen RC, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Donohue MC, Gamst AC, Harvey DJ, et al. Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI): clinical characterization. *Neurology* 2010;74(3):201–9.
- [63] Aisen PS, Petersen RC, Donohue MC, Gamst A, Raman R, Thomas RG, et al. Clinical Core of the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative: progress and plans. *Alzheimers Dement* 2010;6(3):239–46.
- [64] Jack CR Jr, Bernstein MA, Borowski BJ, Fox NC, Thompson PM, et al. Update on the magnetic resonance imaging core of the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative. *Alzheimers Dement* 2010;6(3):212–20.
- [65] Jagust WJ, Bandy D, Chen K, Foster NL, Landau SM, Mathis CA, et al. The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative positron emission tomography core. *Alzheimers Dement* 2010;6(3):221–9.
- [66] Shaw LM. PENN biomarker core of the Alzheimer's disease Neuroimaging Initiative. *Neurosignals* 2008;16(1):19–23.
- [67] Saykin AJ, Shen L, Foroud TM, Potkin SG, Swaminathan S, Kim S, et al. Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative biomarkers as quantitative phenotypes: Genetics core aims, progress, and plans. *Alzheimers Dement* 2010;6(3):265–73.
- [68] Shen L, Kim S, Risacher SL, Nho K, Swaminathan S, West JD, et al. Whole genome association study of brain-wide imaging phenotypes for identifying quantitative trait loci in MCI and AD: A study of the ADNI cohort. *Neuroimage* 2010;53(3):1051–63.
- [69] Lister-James J, Pontecorvo MJ, Clark C, Joshi AD, Mintun MA, Zhang W, et al. Florbetapir f-18: a histopathologically validated Beta-amyloid positron emission tomography imaging agent. *Semin Nucl Med* 2011;41(4):300–4.
- [70] Clark CM, Schneider JA, Bedell BJ, Beach TG, Bilker WB, Mintun MA, et al. Use of florbetapir-PET for imaging beta-amyloid pathology. *JAMA* 2011;305(3):275–83.
- [71] Okamura N, Yanai K. Florbetapir (18F), a PET imaging agent that binds to amyloid plaques for the potential detection of Alzheimer's disease. *IDrugs* 2010;13(12):890–9.
- [72] Wong DF, Rosenberg PB, Zhou Y, Kumar A, Raymond V, Ravert HT, et al. In vivo imaging of amyloid deposition in Alzheimer disease using the radioligand 18F-AV-45 (florbetapir [corrected] F 18). *J Nucl Med* 2010;51(6):913–20.
- [73] Furst AJ, Rabinovici GD, Rostomian AH, Steed T, Alkalay A, Racine C, et al. Cognition, glucose metabolism and amyloid burden in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 2012;33(2):215–25.
- [74] Forsberg A, Engler H, Almkvist O, Blomquist G, Hagman G, Wall A, et al. PET imaging of amyloid deposition in patients with mild cognitive impairment. *Neurobiol Aging* 2008;29(10):1456–65.
- [75] Wolk DA, Price JC, Saxton JA, Snitz BE, James JA, Lopez OL, et al. Amyloid imaging in mild cognitive impairment subtypes. *Ann Neurol* 2009;65(5):557–68.
- [76] Jagust WJ, Landau SM, Shaw LM, Trojanowski JQ, Koeppe RA, Reiman EM, et al. Relationships between biomarkers in aging and dementia. *Neurology* 2009;73(15):1193–9.
- [77] De Meyer G, Shapiro F, Vanderstichele H, Vanmechelen E, Engelborghs S, De Deyn PP, et al. Diagnosis-Independent Alzheimer Disease Biomarker Signature in Cognitively Normal Elderly People. *Arch Neurol* 2010;67(8):949–56.
- [78] Rowe CC, Ellis KA, Rimajova M, Bourgeois P, Pike KE, Jones G, et al. Amyloid imaging results from the Australian Imaging, Biomarkers and Lifestyle (AIBL) study of aging. *Neurobiol Aging* 2010;31(8):1275–83.
- [79] Kraus MF, Susmaras T, Caughlin BP, Walker CJ, Sweeney JA, Little DM. White matter integrity and cognition in chronic traumatic brain injury: a diffusion tensor imaging study. *Brain* 2007;130(Pt 10):2508–19.
- [80] Niogi SN, Mukherjee P, Ghajar J, Johnson C, Kolster RA, Sarkar R, et al. Extent of microstructural white matter injury in postconcussive syndrome correlates with impaired cognitive reaction time: a 3T diffusion tensor imaging study of mild traumatic brain injury. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2008;29(5):967–73.
- [81] Niogi SN, Mukherjee P, Ghajar J, Johnson CE, Kolster R, Lee H, et al. Structural dissociation of attentional control and memory in adults with and without mild traumatic brain injury. *Brain* 2008;131(Pt 12):3209–21.
- [82] Blake DD, Weathers FW, Nagy LM, Kaloupek DG, Gusman FD, Charney DS, et al. The development of a Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale. *J Trauma Stress* 1995;8(1):75–90.
- [83] Spitzer RL, Williams JB, Gibbon M, First MB. The Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-III-R (SCID). I: History, rationale, and description. *ArchGeneral Psychiatry* 1992;49:624–9.
- [84] McLellan AT, Luborsky L, Woody GE, O'Brien CP. An improved diagnostic evaluation instrument for substance abuse patients. The Addiction Severity Index. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 1980;168(1):26–33.
- [85] McLellan AT, Kushner H, Metzger D, Peters R, Smith I, Grissom G, et al. The Fifth Edition of the Addiction Severity Index. *J Subst Abuse Treat* 1992;9(3):199–213.
- [86] Derogatis L, Lazarus L. SCL-90-R, Brief symptom inventory, and matching clinical rating scales. In: Maruish ME, ed. *The use of psychological testing for treatment planning and outcome assessment*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.; 1994. p. 217–48.
- [87] Buysse DJ, Reynolds CF 3rd, Monk TH, Berman SR, Kupfer DJ. The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index: a new instrument for psychiatric practice and research. *Psychiatry Res* 1989;28(2):193–213.
- [88] Schoenborn CA, Adams PF, Schiller JS. Summary health statistics for the U.S. population: National Health Interview Survey 2002. *Vital Health Stat* 10 2003;(214):1–83.
- [89] Institute NC. *Dictionary of cancer terms: Pack year*. 2011 [5/16/2011]. Available from: <http://www.cancer.gov/dictionary/?CdrID=306510>.
- [90] Ware JE, Kosinski M, Keller SD. A 12-Item Short-Form Health Survey - Construction of Scales and Preliminary Tests of Reliability and Validity. *Medical Care* 1996;34(3):220–33.
- [91] Keane TM, Fairbank JA, Caddell JM, Zimering RT, Taylor KL, Mora C. Clinical evaluation of a measure to assess combat exposure. *J of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 1989;1:53–5.

- [92] Grafman J, Jonas BS, Martin A, Salazar AM, Weingartner H, Ludlow C, et al. Intellectual function following penetrating head injury in Vietnam veterans. *Brain. a journal of neurology* 1988; 111(Pt 1):169–84.
- [93] Grafman J, Salazar A, Weingartner H, Vance S, Amin D. The relationship of brain-tissue loss volume and lesion location to cognitive deficit. *The Journal of neuroscience: the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience*. 1986;6(2):301-7.
- [94] Nasreddine ZS, Collin I, Chertkow H, Phillips N, Bergman H, Whitehead V. Sensitivity and Specificity of The Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MOCA) for Detection of Mild Cognitive Deficits. *Can J Neurol Sci* 2003;30(2):30.
- [95] Farias ST, Mungas D, Reed BR, Cahn-Weiner D, Jagust W, Baynes K, et al. The measurement of everyday cognition (ECog): scale development and psychometric properties. *Neuropsychology* 2008;22(4):531–44.
- [96] Rosen WG, Mohs RC, Davis KL. A new rating scale for Alzheimer's disease. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 1984;141(11):1356–64.
- [97] Wechsler D. Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation; 1987.
- [98] Kaplan E, Goodglass H, Weintraub S. Boston Naming Test. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1983.
- [99] Butters N, Granholm E, Salmon DP, Grant I, Wolfe J. Episodic and semantic memory: a comparison of amnesic and demented patients. *J Clin Exp Neuropsychol* 1987;9(5):479–97.
- [100] Nelson HE, O'Connell A. Dementia: the estimation of premorbid intelligence levels using the New Adult Reading Test. *Cortex* 1978; 14:234–44.
- [101] Rey A. L'examen clinique en psychologie. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France; 1964.
- [102] Reitan RM. Validity of the Trail Making test as an indicator of organic brain damage. *Percept Mot Skills* 1957;8:271–6.
- [103] Gaudino EA, Geisler MW, Squires NK. Construct validity in the Trail Making Test: what makes Part B harder? *Journal of clinical and experimental neuropsychology* 1995;17(4):529–35.
- [104] Corrigan JD, Hinkeldey NS. Relationships between parts A and B of the Trail Making Test. *Journal of clinical psychology* 1987; 43(4):402–9.
- [105] Berg L. Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR). *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1988;24(4):637–9.
- [106] Pfeffer RI, Kurosaki TT, Harrah CH Jr, Chance JM, Filos S. Measurement of functional activities in older adults in the community. *J Gerontol* 1982;37(3):323–9.
- [107] Kaufer DI, Cummings JL, Ketchel P, Smith V, MacMillan A, Shelley T, et al. Validation of the NPI-Q, a brief clinical form of the Neuropsychiatric Inventory. *J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2000;12(2):233–9.
- [108] Sheikh JI, Yesavage J. Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS): Recent evidence and development of a shorter version. *Clinical Gerontology : A Guide to Assessment and Intervention* New York: The Haworth Press; Editor T.L. Brink. 1986. p. 165-73.
- [109] Subramanian SV, Chen JT, Rehkopf DH, Waterman PD, Krieger N. Comparing individual- and area-based socioeconomic measures for the surveillance of health disparities: A multilevel analysis of Massachusetts births, 1989-1991. *AmJEpidemiol* 2006;164(9):823–34.
- [110] Olsson A, Vanderstichele H, Andreassen N, De Meyer G, Wallin A, Holmberg B, et al. Simultaneous measurement of beta-amyloid(1-42), total tau, and phosphorylated tau (Thr181) in cerebrospinal fluid by the xMAP technology. *Clin Chem* 2005;51(2):336–45.
- [111] Shaw LM, Vanderstichele H, Knapik-Czajka M, Clark CM, Aisen PS, Petersen RC, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarker signature in Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative subjects. *Ann Neurol* 2009;65(4):403–13.
- [112] Mattsson N, Andreasson U, Persson S, Arai H, Batish SD, Bernardini S, et al. The Alzheimer's Association external quality control program for cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers. *Alzheimers Dement* 2011;7(4):386–3956.
- [113] <http://www.adni-info.org/Scientists/ADNIStudyProcedures.aspx>.
- [114] Fischl B, Salat DH, Busa E, Albert M, Dieterich M, Haselgrove C, et al. Whole brain segmentation: automated labeling of neuroanatomical structures in the human brain. *Neuron* 2002;33(3):341–55.
- [115] Elashoff JD. nQuery Advisor® Version 4.0 Users's Guide. Los Angeles, CA: Statistical Solutions; 2000.
- [116] <https://ida.loni.ucla.edu>.